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Online.br: Current Challenges for Internet Governance and Digital Inclusion in Brazil

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In November of 2007, Brazil hosted the second meeting of the United Nations Internet Governance Forum (IGF) in Rio de Janeiro. More than 2,000 participants from 109 different countries registered to attend a large number of workshops and meetings concerning different aspects of Internet governance. Such workshops included Internet administration, access, infra-structure, education, security and more. The IGF was established during the World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS) that took place in 2003 (Geneva) and 2005 (Tunis). In the latter year, the Working Group on Internet Governance (WGIG), which was set up by the WSIS ''to investigate and make proposals for action, as appropriate, on the governance of Internet by 2005,'' (WSIS, 2003, p. 7), recommended ''the creation of a new space for dialogue for all stakeholders on an equal footing on all Internet governance-related issues'' (WGIG, 2005, p. 10). As a result of this recommendation, the United Nations set up the IGF which meets annually between 2006 and 2010 to discuss in a multi-stakeholder environment all relevant aspects of Internet governance. Brazil participated actively in the WSIS and also sent two members to the WGIG meetings.

Over nearly 20 years, Brazil has shown constant efforts to develop the Internet not only on a national scale, but in Latin America as a whole. Together with Mexico it became the most important promoter and financial supporter of the Latin American and Caribbean Internet Addresses Registry (LACNIC). LACNIC is an international non-profit organization responsible for regional registration and oversight of Internet number resources like IP numbers. Moreover some of its tasks are the strengthening of relationships between different stakeholder groups, the support of latest technological standards and the facilitation of Internet utilization. Following its executive director Raúl Echeberría, financial support had been crucial for the establishment of the registry which had to operate mostly on a volunteer basis

during its starting phase between 1997 and October 2002, when it was officially registered by ICANN, the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (LACNIC, 2007, p. 6-7). Within its first five years of official existence LACNIC's budget has multiplied tenfold from US$ 150,000 to US$ 1,5 million.

Apart from the support of LACNIC, different Brazilian actors also became involved in several other fields of Internet politics to advance participation in the global information society. In addition to the government, an increasing number of non-governmental organizations (NGO) developed activities especially in the area of digital inclusion. This article will start with a historical introduction of the Internet in Brazil before focusing on current developments in two important areas of Brazilian Internet politics on the international and national level: internet governance and digital inclusion.

Internet in Brazil

The origins of the Internet are often framed in tales of nuclear defense networks or one-man-actions by former US Vice President Al Gore. Both of these can be considered to be incorrect presentations of historical facts. Al Gore did in fact say the following sentence during an interview with CNN on 9 March 1999: ''During my service in the United States Congress, I took the initiative in creating the Internet,'' (CNN, 1999). Taken out of its original context this sentence caused misunderstanding about Gore's real function towards the Internet and lead Vinton Cerf and Robert Kahn[1] to compose a statement in this regard. In an e-mail sent in September 2000 to Declan McCullaugh[2] and David Farber[3] Cerf pointed out that ''Bob [Robert Kahn] and I believe that the vice president deserves significant credit for his early recognition of the importance of what has become the Internet'' (CERF, 2000). Therefore, Gore had already as a Congressman in the 1970s and also later as a Senator supported the development of information and communication technologies (ICT) and the idea of creating computer networks. But he did not participate in the activities of Cerf, Kahn, Jon Postel, Leonard Kleinrock and others who already in the 1960s started to design networks that today are known as the Internet.

[1] Both Cerf and Kahn are central persons in the development of the Internet. Together they designed the Internet protocol TCP/IP. Cerf later hold leading functions in the Internet Society (ISOC) and ICANN.
[2] Founder of Politechbot.com, a leading Internet mailing list about technology and politics
[3] Professor of Telecommunications Systems at the University of Pennsylvania and at that time Chief Technologist at the US Federal Communications Commission

The second episode of Internet tales refers to the function of the net as a primal US American tool to survive a possible nuclear attack. Although the US Department of Defense played in fact an important (financial) role in the development of the Internet, this story has a different background. It corresponds to a project at the RAND Corporation in California where Paul Baran conducted research on the development of stable communication networks that would survive the worst case scenario of a nuclear strike on US American territory. When the developers of computer networks at the Advanced Research Projects Agency[4] (ARPA) caught wind of Baran's research in 1967, they had already spent years of work on the idea to let computers communicate with each other. Already in 1965 the first small network between two computers was established by Lawrence Roberts and his colleagues at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) and Santa Monica's (California) System Development Corporation. Roberts later continued his work at ARPA where he became a key figure in the development of the computer network ARPANET, which would later be called the Internet. The central role of academic institutes during the development of the net also becomes clear when taking a look at how the network grew in its first years: after the Universities of Los Angeles, Santa Barbara, Utah and the Stanford Research Institute became connected to each other, a growing number of research institutions became interested in participating in this network whose central idea was the access to and exchange of information, first basically for the purpose of academic research, later also for other types of information. Following this tradition of academic exchange, it was also a research institute that in the case of Brazil got the first connection to the network in January 1991 when the Research Foundation of São Paulo, (Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo, FAPESP) connected to the network of the US National Science Foundation (NSFNET), thus gaining access to the Internet.

Before that happened, members of the FAPESP and other academic institutions had already been involved in discussions and activities concerning computer networks for several years which had resulted in a connection of the National Laboratory of Computer Science, Laboratório Nacional de Computação Científica (LNCC), to BITNET[5] in September of 1988.

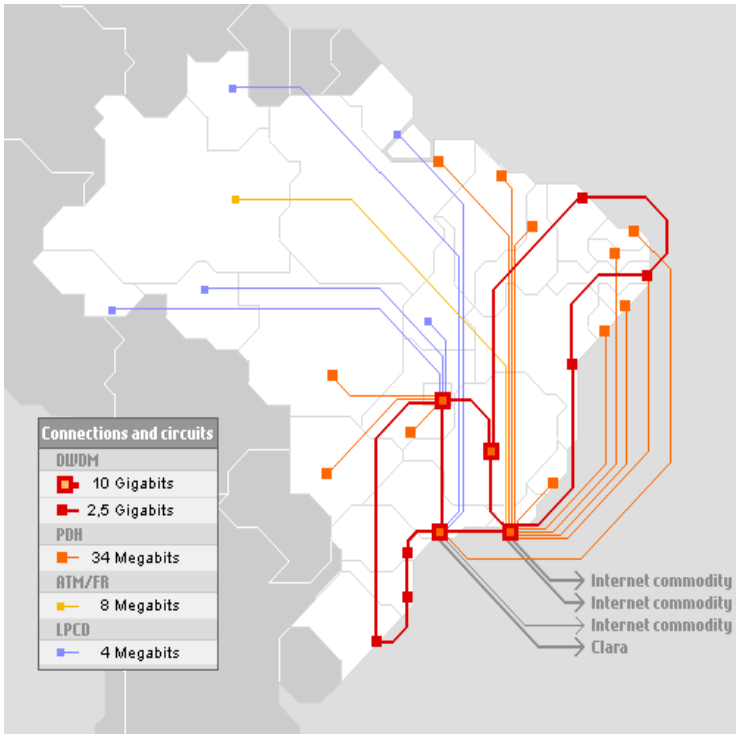
[4] ARPA (today called DARPA) is a US-American Research agency that developed the ARPANET which later became the Internet.

[5] BITNET was a computer network established in 1981 between the City University of New York and the Yale University. Later other institutions joined so that in the 1990s more than 3,000 computers in several hundreds of academic entities participated making it the biggest of all existing research computer networks. In the second half of the 1990s BITNET lost its importance to the growing Internet and slowly disappeared.

To foster the development of national network infrastructure, FAPESP started a new project in the second half of 1988 to create a Brazilian network between academic institutions. The so called Academic Network at São Paulo (ANSP) was meant to be the first academic network of Brazil between a limited number of institutions like FAPESP, the Universities of São Paulo (USP) and Rio Grande do Sul (UFRGS), PUC-Rio de Janeiro and LNCC. ANSP was connected to BITNET in November the same year while the official inauguration took place in April of 1989. In May of 1989 also the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro (UFRJ) connected to BITNET.

Although ANSP was a success, it was limited to a relatively small number of institutions and in fact can be seen as a way to compensate the lack of a national network that was needed to coordinate and facilitate access for other regions in the country. A project concerning this matter was the National Research Network (Rede Nacional de Pesquisa, RNP) which in 1999 was renamed in Rede Nacional de Ensino e Pesquisa (National Education and Research Network). The first proposals for a national network were made by the National Laboratory of Computer Networks (Laboratório Nacional de Redes de Computadores, LARC) already in June 1988. But due to lack of political support and high implantation costs, it was delayed for over a year which contributed to the decision of interested researchers to built up ANSP and to connect to BITNET on their own. Finally in September 1989 the RNP project was officially launched and presented by the Ministry of Science and Technology (MCT) on an information technology congress in São Paulo. In the following years, RNP became responsible for several tasks some of which were building a modern infrastructure, offering seminars to train new users from the academic community and informing the public about the advantages and necessity of the net. It worked under surveillance of the National Council of Technological and Scientific Development (Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico, CNPq), who provided financial resources for the network. In the beginning of 1992 the so far developed network connected eleven Brazilian capital cities[6]. In the following years, all other capitals plus the Federal District were connected to the RNP. Today, it serves as the Brazilian backbone for connecting all major scientific institutions in the whole country plus several institutions in other countries.

[6] Porto Alegre, Florianópolis, Curitiba, São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Belo Horizonte, Brasília, Salvador, Recife, Fortaleza and Belém



Brazilian Internet Backbone RNP
Source: http://www.rnp.br/_media/backbone/bkb_en.png

After FAPESP received the first Internet access in Brazil in January of 1991, the net was still used by a relatively small group of people working in the academic sector. With the development of the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), the Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) and the Uniform Resource Locator (URL) as well as the first browser WorldWideWeb[7] the English physician Tim Berners-Lee created in 1989/1990 the World Wide Web (WWW) which most people refer to today when they talk about the Internet. Especially after the development of the Mosaic browser in 1993 a constantly growing number of people worldwide began accessing the Internet both for professional and private reasons, thus creating a request for Internet regulation. In May of 1995, the Brazilian Internet Steering Committee (Comitê Gestor da Internet, CGI), was founded by the Ministry of Communications (MC) and the Ministry of Science and Technology (MCT) to coordinate diverse Internet related issues in the country. CGI is located in São Paulo and consists of 21 members[8]. On its website (www.cgi.br) the committee shows a diagram of its

[7] Later the name was changed to Nexus to avoid confusing the World Wide Web (the Internet, WWW) with the WorldWideWeb (browser).

[8] Nine federal government representatives (Ministry of Science and Technology, Ministry of Communications, Presidential Cabinet, Ministry of Defense, Ministry of Development, Industry and Foreign Trade, Ministry of Planning, Budget and Management, National Telecommunications Agency, National Council of Scientific and Technological Development, National Forum of Estate Science and Technology Secretaries), four representatives of the corporate sector (Internet services providers, telecommunications infrastructure providers, hardware and software industries, general business sector users), four representatives of the third sector, three representatives of the scientific and technological community, one Internet expert

own structure where all non-governmental members besides one are graphically united under the name of civil society (9 governmental actors, 11 civil society actors and one so called Internet expert). While this might create the impression of civil society dominating the decision making processes regarding the Internet, a closer look shows that under the name of civil society a diversified group of stakeholders from the private sector, the third sector, and the academic sector were grouped together. And in fact the governmental group dominates CGI (in numbers). Nine of the participants represent different federal ministries, four stand for the private sector, another four for the third sector, three for the scientific and technological community and one is an Internet expert.

Internet policy development, the coordination of IP addresses and domain registration, and network security aspects are some of CGI's main tasks. Managed by its executive arm, the Brazilian Network Information Center (Núcleo de Informação e Coordenação do Ponto BR, NIC.br), CGI is structured in five main sub-group:

REGISTRO.br	responsible for registration of names and numbers, administration and publication of the Domain Name System[9] (DNS) for the country code top level domain (ccTLD) .br, distribution of Internet addresses, technical cooperation and support of LACNIC
CERT.br	responsible for security aspects of the Internet, related support of Internet users and administrators, release of publications about Internet and network security issues, data collection about spam and other incidents in the country and research about network protection
CETIC.br	responsible for the production of indicators and statistics about Internet use and accessability in Brazil
CEPTRO.br	responsible for research and realization of projects regarding improvement of technical aspects and infrastructure
W3C.br	Brazilian office of the W3 Consortium, responsible for development and maintanence of international Internet standards

Internet Governance in Brazil

The year 2009 is going to be of high importance for Brazil's efforts to support the establishment of a new structure of the existing technical Internet regulations. In September 2009 the Joint Project Agreement (JPA) between the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN) and the US-American

[9]The DNS is the database which includes information about all computers on the Internet. It is the system that facilitates communication between different computers.

Department of Commerce (DOC) will come to an end. The contract was signed in September of 2006 ''for the purpose of the joint development of the mechanisms, methods, and procedures necessary to effect the transition of Internet domain name and addressing system (DNS) to the private sector'' (JPA, 2006, p. 1). ICANN has the status of a private non-profit organization that was founded in 1998 after a series of attempts by the Internet community to establish technical Internet regulations with the least amount of governmental influence possible (MUELLER, 2004, p. 163ff). Due to the current contract between ICANN and the DOC, the US administration is the only government that at the time has direct influence on international Internet regulations. Other governments can participate in ICANN's Governmental Advisory Committee (GAC) that offers consultative functions but no explicit possibilities to participate in decision-making processes. Since its foundation, ICANN has been a permanent cause for dispute between quite a large number of actors involved in the Internet governance process.

During the WGIG meeting on October 6th, 2004, Brazilian diplomat José Marcos Nogueira Viana presented the official Brazilian position on Internet governance developed by the Foreign Ministry (Itamaraty). During his presentation he stressed the importance of three aspects considered to be crucial for further Internet regulations: multilateralism, transparency and democracy. During his speech, he focused especially on the democratic factor, mentioning multilateralism and transparency on a few occasions. Democratic participation therefore contradicts the structure of ICANN where only one government has the single power to influence Internet regulations. The official statement called it an ''absolutely insufficient'' (NOGUEIRA, 2004) participation of other governments who had just a consultative position even though questions of public policy implications were in discussion. Furthermore Nogueira pointed out that Internet governance cannot be reduced to administration of domain names, numbers and intellectual property addresses. He mentioned a list of other issues like data protection, spam, cybersecurity, multilingualism and local content, intellectual property and the digital divide. In most of the cases, he continued, governments have the highest responsibility and therefore have a much more important role in the whole process than other interest groups. For this reason, he presented the Brazilian proposal to create an intergovernmental forum to discuss all aspects of Internet governance. The forum could also serve specifically for the integration of countries that so far had been unable to participate in Internet governance discussions as most of them took place only in a few countries, especially in North America and Europe.

Taking a closer look at Itamaraty's proposals for democratic reforms of Internet governance it becomes clear that reforms are reduced to a growing influence of the public sector, leaving civil society and the private sector with relatively small power. In several parts of his presentation, Nogueira underlined that Internet governance is principally a political question, an area where governments have more responsibility than other interest groups. Furthermore he pointed out that governments could be considered as national representatives and therefore also representatives of the private sector and civil society. He called WSIS a process that is mainly of intergovernmental character. Although this goes partly inline with official WSIS documents like the Tunis Commitment where its stated that besides the importance of other stakeholder groups governments possess a ''key role ... in the WSIS process,'' (WSIS 2005, p. 2), some indicators show that the Brazilian public sector intentionally tries to dominate other stakeholder groups. Firstly, by pointing out that governments can speak as representatives for both, the public sector and civil society, these actors are being reduced to having minor importance which is not an adequate starting basis for cooperative relations due to the fact that within the UN Internet governance process these actors are seen as important and independent stakeholder groups. Secondly, the composition of the CGI (governmental actors are far outnumbering all other stakeholder groups) and especially the indifferent aggregation of such different stakeholder groups like the third sector/NGOs and private economy under the label of civil society show a certain lack of sensibility regarding important partners of both dialogue and technical cooperation. It also does not combine with the correct classification of individual stakeholder groups like it happens in the Internet governance process. Thirdly, the Itamaraty statement does make clear that (in case of the WGIG) it was in favor of geographical (North-South) as well as political (supporters and opponents of ICANN reform) balance. But it does not support equality when it comes to the number of representatives from different stakeholder groups. Rather, it declares that all stakeholder groups should be represented just as much as necessary in relation to the importance they have regarding the issues at stake. Combined with the predication mentioned before, that government responsibilities are in most cases much higher than those of other actors, the conclusion is that following the official line the Brazilian economy, civil society or academic representatives must be kept small in numbers and especially must not exceed the number of governmental representatives. Just like the US government tried to reduce other stakeholders' influence on the Internet in the 1990's (here can especially be mentioned the Internet Society, ISOC) to fortify its own leading position (GOLDSMITH, 2006, p. 40ff), the Brazilian government does so today. With

the slight difference that Itamaraty is looking for a higher influence not just for itself but for all national governments to reduce the hegemony of the US administration. This influence by other governments is so far denied by the US. The question is if tables will turn in September 2009 when the Joint Project Agreement between ICANN and the DOC ends.

Already before the US Presidential elections took place in November of 2008, discussions started about the future of the Joint Project Agreement. During the Bush era, power over the DNS was still in the hands of the US administration and not a single Internet governance actor honestly expected this situation to change. First speculations came up after Barack Obama was officially nominated as a Presidential candidate. Thus far, it is unclear if ''change'' under Obama includes a democratization or privatization of the current DNS oversight or just a continuation of the status quo. The newspaper Folha de São Paulo declared already on March 19th, 2008, that in 2009 the Internet would be free of US governmental influence and therefore truly global (FOLHA DE SÃO PAULO, 2008). Of course it is not that easy as an end of the JPA could also simply mean its renovation for another few years using the argument that time for complete privatization has not come yet. In January 2008 ICANN chairman Peter Dengate Thrush mentioned in his report to the DOC that although the JPA had been necessary in the beginning, time had come for ICANN to leave the contract: ''Now, the JPA contributes to a misperception that the domain name system is managed and overseen on a daily basis by the US Government. Ending the JPA will provide long-term stability and security for a model that works'' (SAINSBURY, 2008). However, the DOC had a different opinion about this. In a letter to ICANN written in July of 2008, Meredith Baker of the DOC explained, that the Department had no intention to give away control over the DNS and the root server:

> ''The Department believes strongly that it is important to clarify that we are not in discussions with either party to change the respective roles of the Department, ICANN or VeriSign [company responsible for the administration of the crucial root server A] regarding the management of the authoritative root zone file, nor do we have any plans to undertake such discussions. ... the Department ... has no plans to transition management of the authoritative root zone file to ICANN ... '' (BAKER, 2008).

While this letter was written before the elections, an announcement of newly elected President Obama called the attention of telecommunication analysts to a possible new scenario. In November of 2008, Obama declared the creation of a new office for a chief technological officer (CTO). On January 15th, 2009, Business Week presented the two candidates one of whom will be the first national CTO being Padmasree Warrior and Vivek Kundra, both technology experts with a long-time

experience in the public and private sector. Nevertheless, it is unclear what the role of the new CTO will play when the JPA ends.

Digital Inclusion

Besides the democratization of control over the DNS and the root zone file, digital inclusion is one of the most important aspects of Brazilian IT politics. Digital inclusion aims at closing the digital gap which can be defined as the difference between people having access to ICT and those who don't have. In this context the expressions ''IT haves'' and ''IT have nots'' are also used on occasion. But it is not just pure access to a computer that solves the problem of digital exclusion. In fact, digital inclusion and social inclusion are closely combined. To gain a successful digital inclusion, the user must learn how to use the equipment and also how it can improve his current situation. One of the most common methods in Brazil is the installation of telecenters, internet cafes with free access and educational offers for the local population. The conceptual installation of a telecenter is of crucial importance for its sustainability. A room filled with computers connected to the Internet is a waste of resources if nobody knows how to use them or why they would want to. Therefore, telecenters always have to be combined with at least a course program focused on the needs of the local population.

Telecenters are installed by different stakeholder groups like public institutions, private companies and NGOs. One successful example from Rio de Janeiro is the Committee for Democratization of Information Technology (Comitê para Demoratização da Informática, CDI). CDI started building schools called Information Technology and Citizens Rights Schools (Escolas de Informática e Cidadania, EIC), in low income areas in Rio de Janeiro in 1995. The concept of the schools is to train members (especially young people) of the communities in questions of citizens' rights and use of computers. Teachers and school staff are recruited directly from the communities making the schools part of its local neighborhood. Later programs were also extended to attend other social groups like street children, prisoners, mentally disabled and more. CDI developed its own open source system based on Linux which helped to include even older machines into the schools' networks. All schools run on a self sustained level getting funds from student fees and donations from partner organizations or companies. Students unable to pay fees are offered to volunteer in exchange for a participation in class activities.

An evaluation done in the year 2000 by the Institute for Social and Economic Research (ISER) showed that CDI managed to reach exactly the part of the population they were looking for. 65% of the students were between 10 and 18 years old, 56% were female, 63% without income and 29% with a maximum income of one or two minimum wages. 87% of all students asked declared that the course had a positive impact on their life (INFODEV, 2003, p. 11). In 2003, CDI had created 830 schools throughout Brazil and in other countries like Uruguay, Colombia, Chile and Mexico. Nowadays, it is considered to be one of the most successful Brazilian NGOs in the area of digital inclusion.

But not just the third sector, also other parts of Brazilian society are involved in the reduction of the digital gap. In particular, the public sector has launched a high number of programs to reduce digital exclusion over the last 10 years. A number in fact so high that it seems to be impossible to become aware of all activities taken place. The spectrum is very wide going from infrastructure programs to access electricity and telephone lines over basic computer courses and telecenters until implantation of e-government programs or the facilitation to buy low priced equipment. In January 2009, 20 different programs about digital inclusion were conducted by 10 of 23 ministries, many of them in cooperation with other institutions or the private sector. In this context the Ministry of Science and Technology and the Ministry of Education were with each six different programs the most frequently involved. Only one ministry (mines and energy) participated in digital inclusion measures although it was not officially part of the federal program.

A successful narrowing of the digital gap requires permanent quality control and an evaluation of the programs developed so far. The Brazilian government therefore installed a surveillance called ONID (Observatório Nacional de Inclusão Digital) together with the Institute for Research, Social, and Technological Projects, (Instituto de Pesquisas e Projetos Sociais e Tecnológicos, IPSO). ONIDs main task is to register all telecenters, infocenters or other non-commercial facilities in the country offering Internet access to reduce the digital gap. This information can be used to establish further evaluation programs. In January ONID registered 5114 locations in Brazil. At the same time the Brazilian Institute for Scientific and Technological Information (Instituto Brasileiro de Informação em Ciência e Tecnologia, IBICT) had already counted 17,813 venues of the same kind.

To measure the results of the recent years' efforts, the Internet Steering Committee CGI conducted its third representative study on the use of ICT in Brazil which was published in 2008 and contains data collected between September and

November of 2007. For this survey, CGI carried out interviews in 17,000 households covering all of the five regions of the country. The results showed progress in several areas. The number of Internet users in Brazil grew from 35 Million in 2006 to 45 Million in 2007. 40% of all Brazilians are considered to be computer users. 24% of all households have their own desktop computer. This is 4% more than in 2006 and can be traced back to the governmental program ''Computer for all'' (Computador para todos) which reduced taxes on computers for lower middle class families. The distribution of computers differs from region to region. The highest percentage can be found in the south (31%) and in the south-east (30%) while in the north only 13% of all households have their own computer and in the north-east 11%. Also, growth rates here are with 2-3% lower than in the rest of the country. 17% of all households in Brazil have their own Internet access and for the first time there are more broadband accesses than dial up modems in use. Nevertheless the most common place for Brazilians to access the Internet is in an Internet cafe. For this reason their number has risen constantly in the last years.

Conclusion

In November of 2008, President Lula announced his plans to strengthen telecenters in Brazil and to set up a new program from 2009 to 2010. In the first year, 3,000 new telecenters shall be built and another 10,000 in the second year. Furthermore, already existing telecenters are to be improved. Other plans are to install broadband Internet access in all municipalities of the country until the end of 2010. Another long-term strategy says that until 2025 all of the almost 57,000 urban public schools shall have Internet access free of charge[10]. This is just an extract of what the Federal government of Brazil wants to do in the coming years and it shows the importance given to digital inclusion by the public sector. And in deed the success of different programs is already visible. The growing number of households equipped with computers and the also growing numbers of private Internet accesses in general and especially by broadband are the result of constant efforts by the public, private, and third sector to include more and more citizens in the information society. But although progress has been made it must not be forgotten that the majority of the population is still far away, some more than others, from the possibility to use information technologies to improve their living

[10] Besides there are also programs to include rural areas. During the opening session of the IGF in Rio de Janeiro in November 2007 Brazilian representative Sérgio Rezendo declared that until 2010 140,000 public schools shall have access to the Internet.

circumstances. A continuation and especially an equal cooperation between the different stakeholder groups is necessary to further the digital inclusion. For this purpose a constant evaluation of the ongoing programs is indispensable to make the right decisions at the right time. A critical point is the high number of programs with similar objectives. An effective merging of all programs aiming at the installation of telecenters would reduce the total number of programs and also help to reduce expenditures that could be used to enhance the budget of the programs themselves. Similar modifications could be done with infrastructure projects, equipment acquisition programs and so on.

The ongoing digital inclusion will help Brazil in the next years to enlarge its own IT industry. But the growing number of consumers of IT products has not just led to a rise of investments both national and international. It has also strengthened Brazil's position to be an important partner regarding questions of Internet regulation on a regional and a global scale. Brazil's commitments to democratize Internet governance have fortified its alliances with a number of states, especially in Asia, Africa and Latin America. But democratization also means equal participation. In the case of Internet governance, the Brazilian government is trying to limit the influence of other actors from civil society and the private sector. Within the IGF these actors are considered to be equal stakeholder groups with

> ''undisputable competence and legitimacy with regards to the Internet. Having invented and developed on their own a network with global reach and success at a time when most governments were not even paying attention, civil society and business actors needed to be involved in the WSIS process [and later in the IGF] to provide information to diplomats who initially lacked a correct understanding of the technical dimensions and policy challenges'' (CHAPELLE, 2007, p. 20).

It is impossible for the public sector to resolve the tasks of Internet governance on its own. For this reason, cooperation at the same eye level has to replace domination of other stakeholder groups. But in fact, if democratization of global Internet regulations is really going to happen, it will be visible by September of 2009.

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